



**BITS Pilani**  
Pilani Campus

# Computer Organization and Software Systems

## CONTACT SESSION 2

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# Today's Class



Contact Hour	List of Topic Title	Text/Ref Book/external resource
3	<b>Performance Assessment</b> 1.5.1. MIPS Rate 1.5.2 Amdahl's Law ✓	Class Slides
4	<b>Memory Organization</b> Storage Technologies Random Access Memory ✓ Disk Storage ✓ Solid State Disks ✓ Storage Technology Trends	T1, R2



# Performance Assessment

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# Units

$$10^3 = 1K \Rightarrow 1024 B = 2^{10}$$
$$10^6 = 1M$$



$$1024 K$$

$$2^{16} \cdot 2^{10} \Rightarrow 2^{26}$$

- Kilo- (K) = 1 thousand =  $10^3$  and  $2^{10}$
- Mega- (M) = 1 million =  $10^6$  and  $2^{20}$
- Giga- (G) = 1 billion =  $10^9$  and  $2^{30}$
- Tera- (T) = 1 trillion =  $10^{12}$  and  $2^{40}$
- Peta- (P) = 1 quadrillion =  $10^{15}$  and  $2^{50}$
- Exa - (E) = 1 quintillion =  $10^{18}$  and  $2^{60}$

# Examples



Hertz = clock cycles per second (frequency)

- 1MHz = 1,000,000Hz
- Processor speeds are measured in MHz or GHz.

Byte = a unit of storage

- 1KB =  $2^{10}$  = 1024 Bytes
- 1MB =  $2^{20}$  = 1,048,576 Bytes
- Main memory (RAM) is measured in MB / GB
- Disk storage is measured in GB for small systems, TB for large systems.

# Units...



- ✓ Milli- (m) = 1 thousandth =  $10^{-3}$  ✓
- Micro- ( $\mu$ ) = 1 millionth =  $10^{-6}$  ✓
- ✓ Nano- (n) = 1 billionth =  $10^{-9}$
- ✓ Pico- (p) = 1 trillionth =  $10^{-12}$
- ✓ Femto- (f) = 1 quadrillionth =  $10^{-15}$

# Examples

- Millisecond = 1 thousandth of a second
  - ~~Hard~~ disk drive access times are often 10 to 20 milliseconds.
- Nanosecond = 1 billionth of a second
  - ~~Main~~ memory access times are often 50 to 70 nanoseconds.
- Micron (micrometer) = 1 millionth of a meter
  - Circuits on computer chips are measured in microns.

# Important Terms



- **Execution time** : The total time required for the computer to complete a task, including disk accesses, memory accesses, I/O activities, operating system overhead, CPU execution
- **Throughput or bandwidth** : number of tasks completed per unit time.

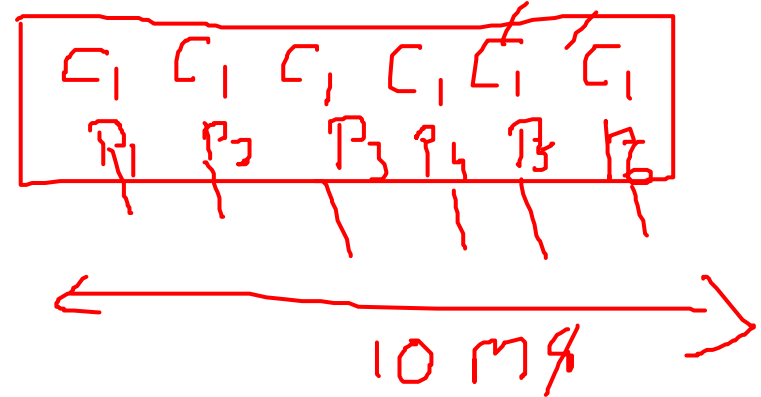
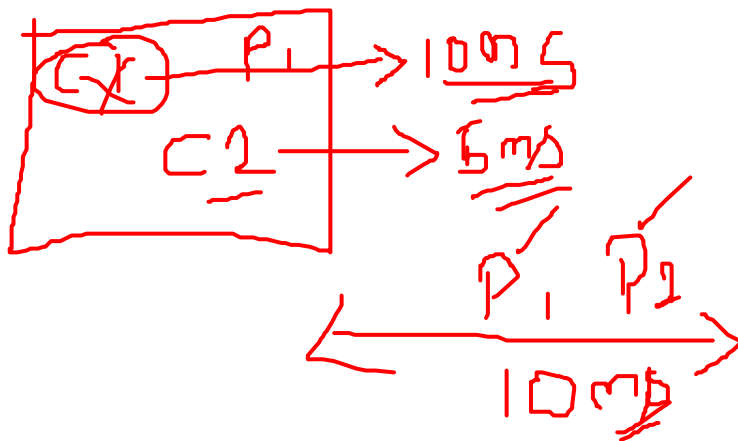


# Example



Do the following changes to a computer system increase throughput, decrease execution time, or both?

1. Replacing the processor in a computer with a faster version
2. Adding additional processors to a system that uses multiple processors for separate tasks



# Contd...



- Relationship between Performance and execution time of Computer X

$$\text{Performance}_x = \frac{1}{\text{Execution time}_x}$$

- if the performance of X is greater than the performance of Y, we have

$$\text{Performance}_x > \text{Performance}_y$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{Execution time}_x} > \frac{1}{\text{Execution time}_y}$$

$$\text{Execution time}_y > \text{Execution time}_x$$

# Contd...



- Quantitative performance analysis
  - Computer X is "n" times faster than Computer Y

$$\frac{\text{Performance}_x}{\text{Performance}_y} = n$$

- If X is  $n$  times faster than Y, then the execution time on Y is  $n$  times longer than it is on X:

$$\frac{\text{Performance}_x}{\text{Performance}_y} = \frac{\text{Execution time}_y}{\text{Execution time}_x} = n$$

# Example



- If computer A runs a program in 10 seconds and computer B runs the same program in 15 seconds, how much faster is A than B?

$$\frac{\text{Performance}_A}{\text{Performance}_B} = \frac{\text{Execution time}_B}{\text{Execution time}_A} = n$$

Handwritten calculation:  $\frac{P_A}{P_B} = \frac{15}{10} \Rightarrow 1.5$

- Computer A is therefore 1.5 times faster than B.



# CPU performance and its factors



- CPU execution time for a program:

$$\text{CPU execution time for a program} = \text{CPU clock cycles for a program} \times \underline{\text{Clock cycle time}}$$

$$\text{CPU execution time for a program} = \frac{\text{CPU clock cycles for a program}}{\underline{\text{Clock rate}}}$$

# Example



- Our favorite program runs in 10 seconds on computer A, which has a 2 GHz clock. We are trying to help a computer designer build a computer, B, which will run this program in 6 seconds. The designer has determined that a substantial increase in the clock rate is possible, but this increase will affect the rest of the CPU design, causing computer B to require 1.2 times as many clock cycles as computer A for this program. What clock rate should we tell the designer to target?

$$\text{CPU execution time for a program} = \frac{\text{CPU clock cycles for a program}}{\text{Clock rate}}$$

Let's first find the number of clock cycles required for the program on A:

$$\text{CPU time}_A = \frac{\text{CPU clock cycles}_A}{\text{Clock rate}_A}$$

$$10 \text{ seconds} = \frac{\text{CPU clock cycles}_A}{2 \times 10^9 \frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{second}}}$$

$$\text{CPU clock cycles}_A = 10 \text{ seconds} \times 2 \times 10^9 \frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{second}} = 20 \times 10^9 \text{ cycles}$$

CPU time for B can be found using this equation:

$$\text{CPU time}_B = \frac{1.2 \times \text{CPU clock cycles}_A}{\text{Clock rate}_B}$$

$$6 \text{ seconds} = \frac{1.2 \times 20 \times 10^9 \text{ cycles}}{\text{Clock rate}_B}$$

$$\text{Clock rate}_B = \frac{1.2 \times 20 \times 10^9 \text{ cycles}}{6 \text{ seconds}} = \frac{0.2 \times 20 \times 10^9 \text{ cycles}}{\text{second}} = \frac{4 \times 10^9 \text{ cycles}}{\text{second}} = \underline{\underline{4 \text{ GHz}}}$$

# Instruction Performance



- CPI: Clock cycles Per Instruction
  - Average number of clock cycles per instruction for a program or program fragment.

$$\text{CPU clock cycles} = \text{Instructions for a program} \times \text{Average clock cycles per instruction}$$



# Example



Computer A has a clock cycle time of 250 ps and a CPI of 2.0 for some program, and computer B has a clock cycle time of 500 ps and a CPI of 1.2 for the same program. Which computer is faster for this program and by how much?

# Solution



- the number of processor clock cycles for each computer

$$\text{CPU clock cycles}_A = I \times 2.0$$

$$\text{CPU clock cycles}_B = I \times 1.2$$

- Execution time for each computer

$$\text{Execution time} = \text{CPU clock cycles} \times \text{Clock cycle time}$$

$$\text{Execution time}_A = I \times 2.0 \times 250 \text{ ps} = 500 \times I \text{ ps}$$

$$\text{Execution time}_B = I \times 1.2 \times 500 \text{ ps} = 600 \times I \text{ ps}$$

- Comparison:

$$\frac{\text{CPU performance}_A}{\text{CPU performance}_B} = \frac{\text{Execution time}_B}{\text{Execution time}_A} = \frac{600 I \text{ ps}}{500 I \text{ ps}} = 1.2$$

# Amdahl's Law



- proposed by Gene Amdahl in 1967
- deals with the potential speedup of a program using multiple processors compared to a single processor

Example-

A program needs 20 hours using a single processor core, and a particular part of the program which takes one hour to execute cannot be parallelized.

The remaining 19 hours ( $p = 0.95$ ) of execution time can be parallelized, then regardless of how many processors are devoted to a parallelized execution of this program, the minimum execution time cannot be less than that critical one hour.

$$1/(1-p)$$

Hence, the theoretical speedup is limited to at most 20 times

. For this reason, parallel computing with many processors is useful only for highly parallelizable programs.

# Amdahl's Law



$$\text{Speedup} = \frac{\text{Performance after enhancement}}{\text{Performance before enhancement}} = \frac{\text{Execution time before enhancement}}{\text{Execution time after enhancement}}$$

$$S = \frac{1}{(1-f) + \frac{f}{k}}$$

**S=Speedup,**  
**f=fraction of time enhancement,**  
**k=speedup of the faster component**

# Amdahl's Law



If 90% of a program is speeded up to run 10 times faster  $f=0.9$  and  $k=10$

Overall speedup is  $1/(1-0.9)+(0.9/10)=$   
 $1/(0.1+0.09)=1/(0.19)=5.26$

Making 80% of a program run 20% faster

$f=0.80$  and  $k=1.2$

$1/(1-0.8)+(0.8/1.2)=$

$1/(0.2+0.8/1.2)=1/(0.2+0.66)=1/0.866=1.154$

# Example



On a large system CPU upgrade makes it faster by 50% for INR 10,000. A disk drive upgrade of INR 7000 speeds it up by 150%. Evaluate the speedups? Processes spend 70% in CPU and 30% waiting Disk drives.

## Processor upgrade

$$f = 0.70, \quad k = 1.5, \quad S = \frac{1}{(1 - 0.7) + 0.7/1.5} = \mathbf{1.304}$$

30% improvement

CPU-30 % improvement -faster by 50%

---so 1% increment is INR 10000/30=INR 333

## Disk Drive upgrade

$$f = 0.30, \quad k = 2.5, \quad S = \frac{1}{(1 - 0.3) + 0.3/2.5} = \mathbf{1.219}$$

22% Improvement

DISK DRIVE- 22% improvement – speeds up 150%---so a 1% increment is INR 7000/22=INR=318

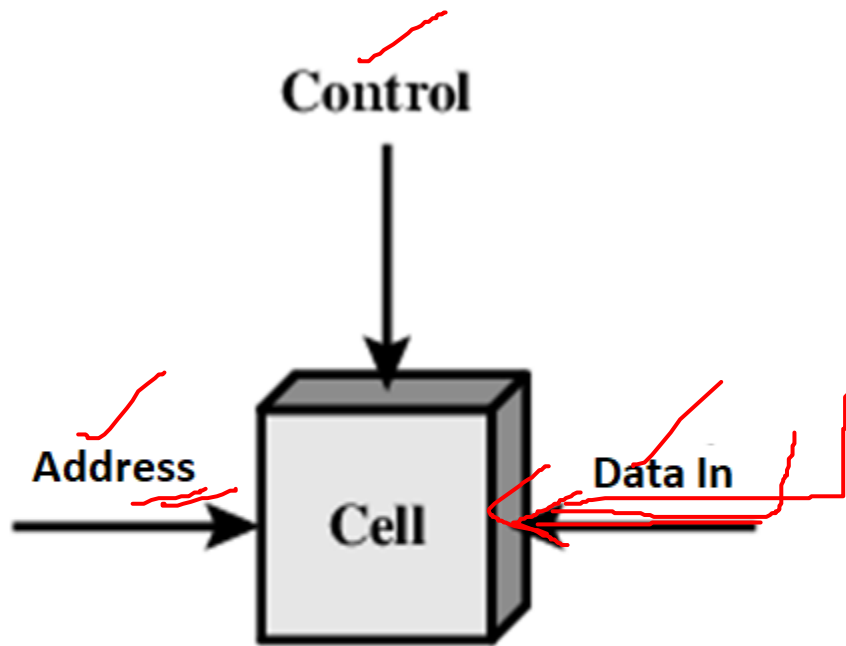
Each 1% of improvement for the processor costs INR333, and for the disk a 1% improvement costs INR318. "Is cost/performance the most important metric?"



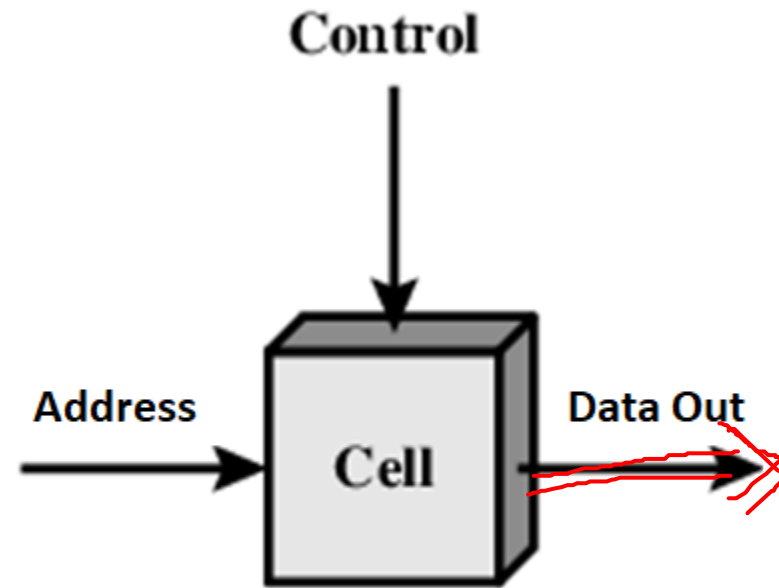
# Memory Organization

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# Semiconductor Memory



(a) Write



(b) Read



# Random-Access Memory (RAM)

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- Key features
  - **RAM** is traditionally packaged as a chip.
  - Basic storage unit is normally a **cell** (one bit per cell).
  - Multiple RAM chips form a memory.
- RAM comes in two varieties:
  - SRAM (Static RAM)
  - DRAM (Dynamic RAM)
- SRAM and DRAM are volatile memories
  - Lose information if powered off.

# SRAM vs DRAM Summary



	Trans. per bit	Access time	Needs refresh?	Needs <u>EDC</u> ?	Cost	Applications
SRAM	4 to 6	1X	No ✓	Maybe ✓	100x ✓	Cache ✓
DRAM	1	10X	Yes ✓	Yes ✓	1X ✓	Main memories, ✓ frame buffers

# Read Only Memory



- Permanent Storage and Nonvolatile Memories
- Read Only Memory Variants:
  - Read-only memory (**ROM**): programmed during production
  - Programmable ROM (**PROM**): can be programmed once
  - Erasable PROM (**EPROM**): can be bulk erased (UV, X-Ray)
  - Electrically erasable PROM (**EEPROM**): electronic erase capability
  - Flash memory: EEPROMs. with partial (block-level) erase capability
    - Wears out after about 100,000 erasing
- Firmware

# Applications

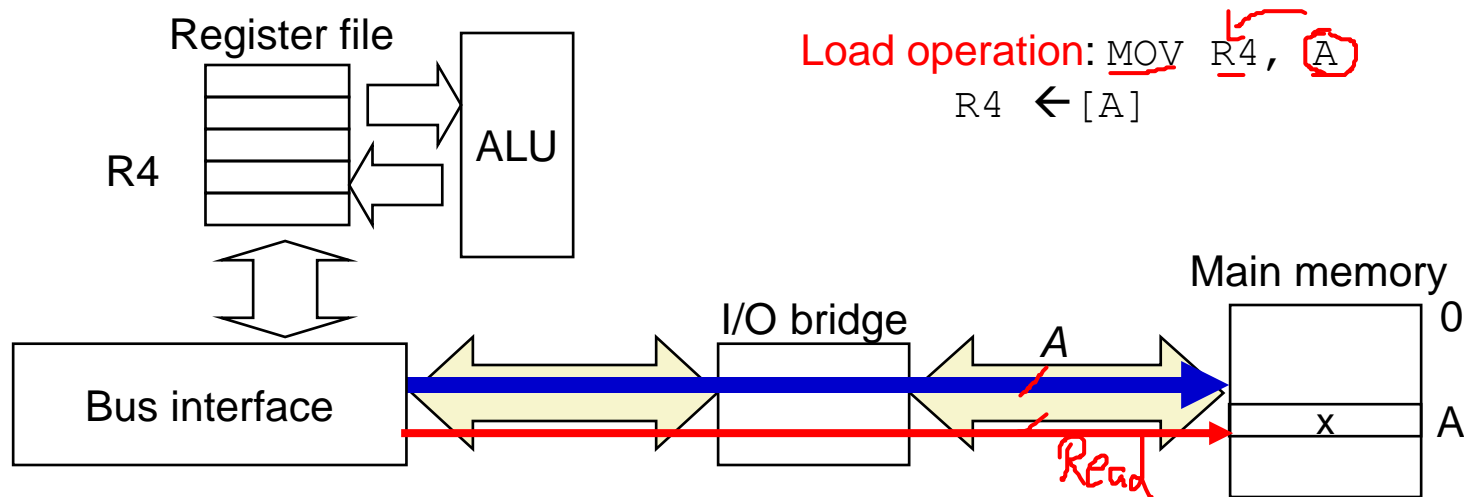
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- Storing fonts for printers
- Storing sound data in musical instruments
- Video game consoles
- Implantable Medical devices.
- High definition Multimedia Interfaces(HDMI)
- BIOS chip in computer
- Program storage chip in modem, video card and many electronic gadgets, controllers for disks, network cards, ....

# Memory Read Operation (1)



CPU places address A and then read control signal on the memory bus

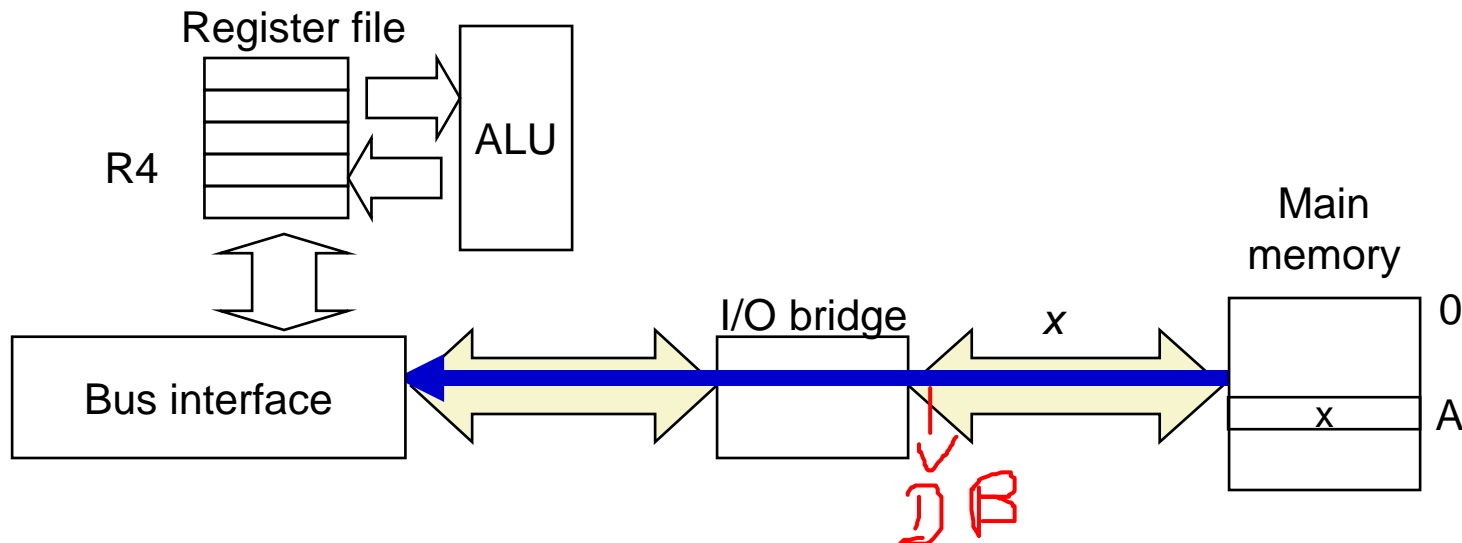


# Memory Read Operation (2)



Main memory reads  $A$  from the memory bus, retrieves word  $x$ , and places it on the bus

Load operation: `MOV R4, A`  
 $R4 \leftarrow [A]$

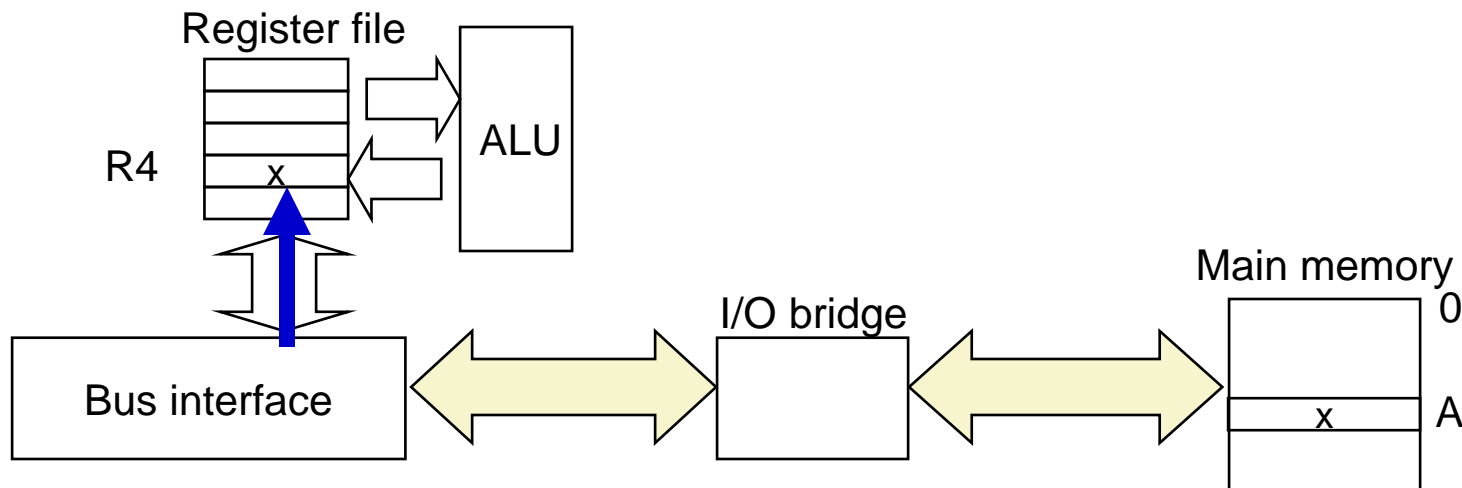


# Memory Read Operation (3)



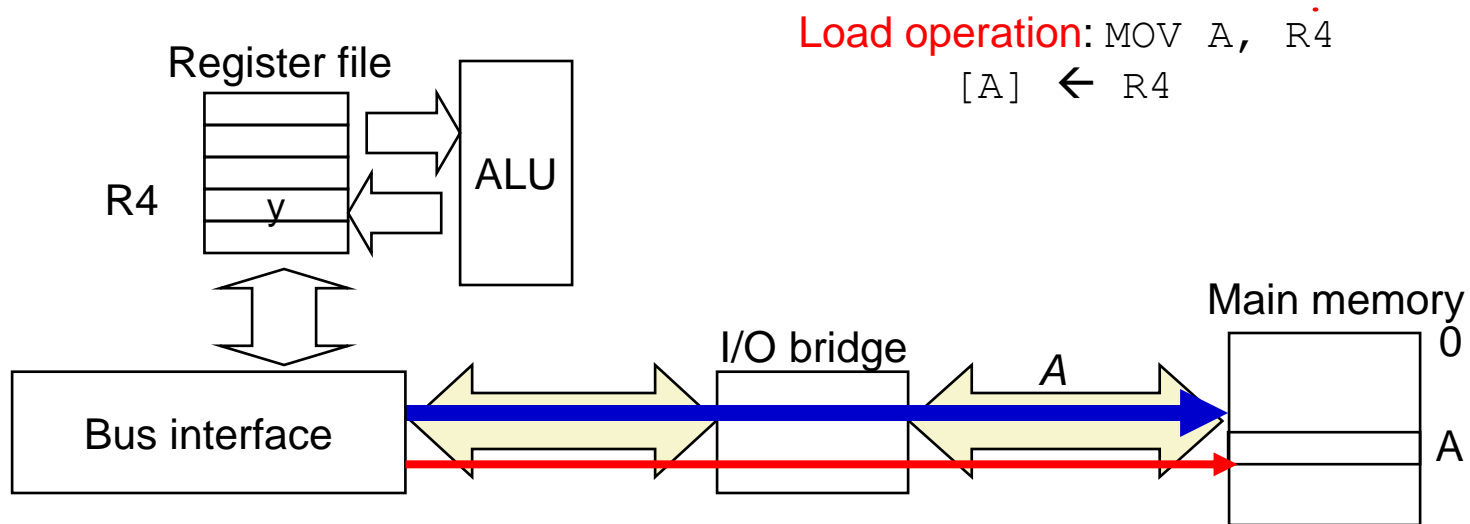
CPU read word  $x$  from the bus and copies it into register R4.

Load operation: `MOV R4, A`  
 $R4 \leftarrow [A]$



# Memory Write Operation (1)

CPU places **address A** and **WRITE** control signal on bus.  
Main memory reads them and waits for the corresponding data word to arrive.

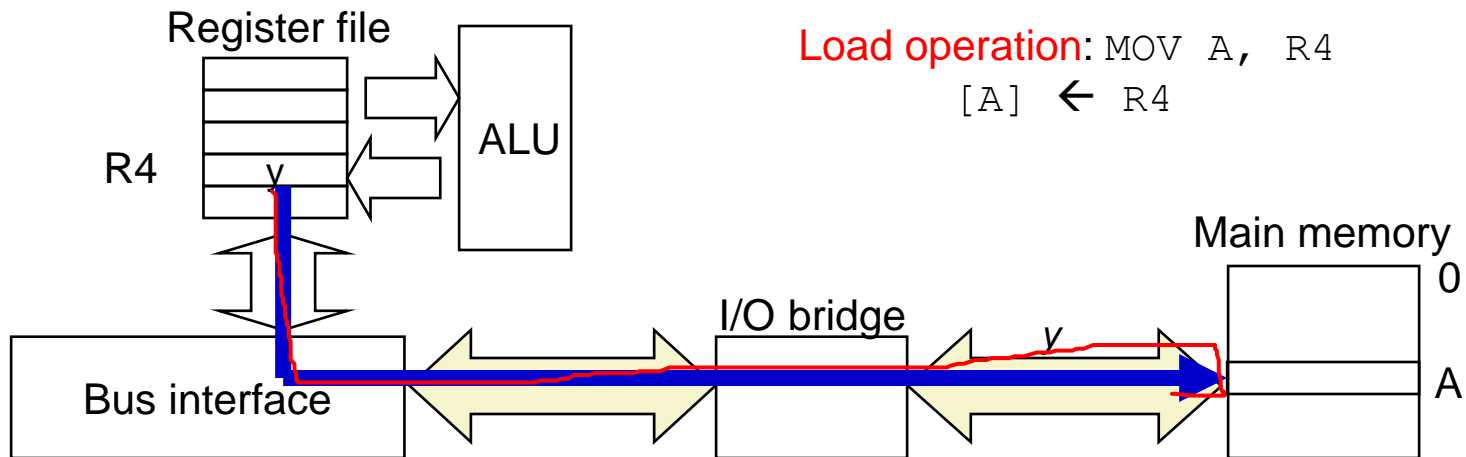




# Memory Write Operation (2)

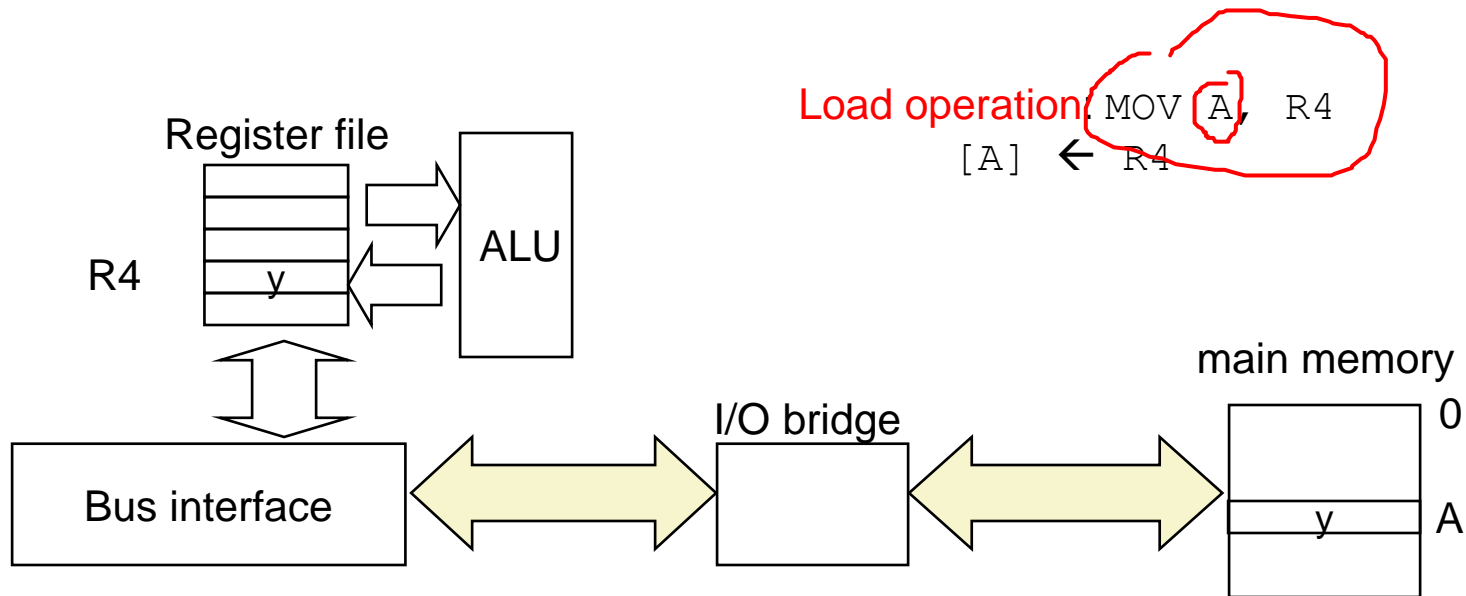


CPU places data word  $y$  on the bus

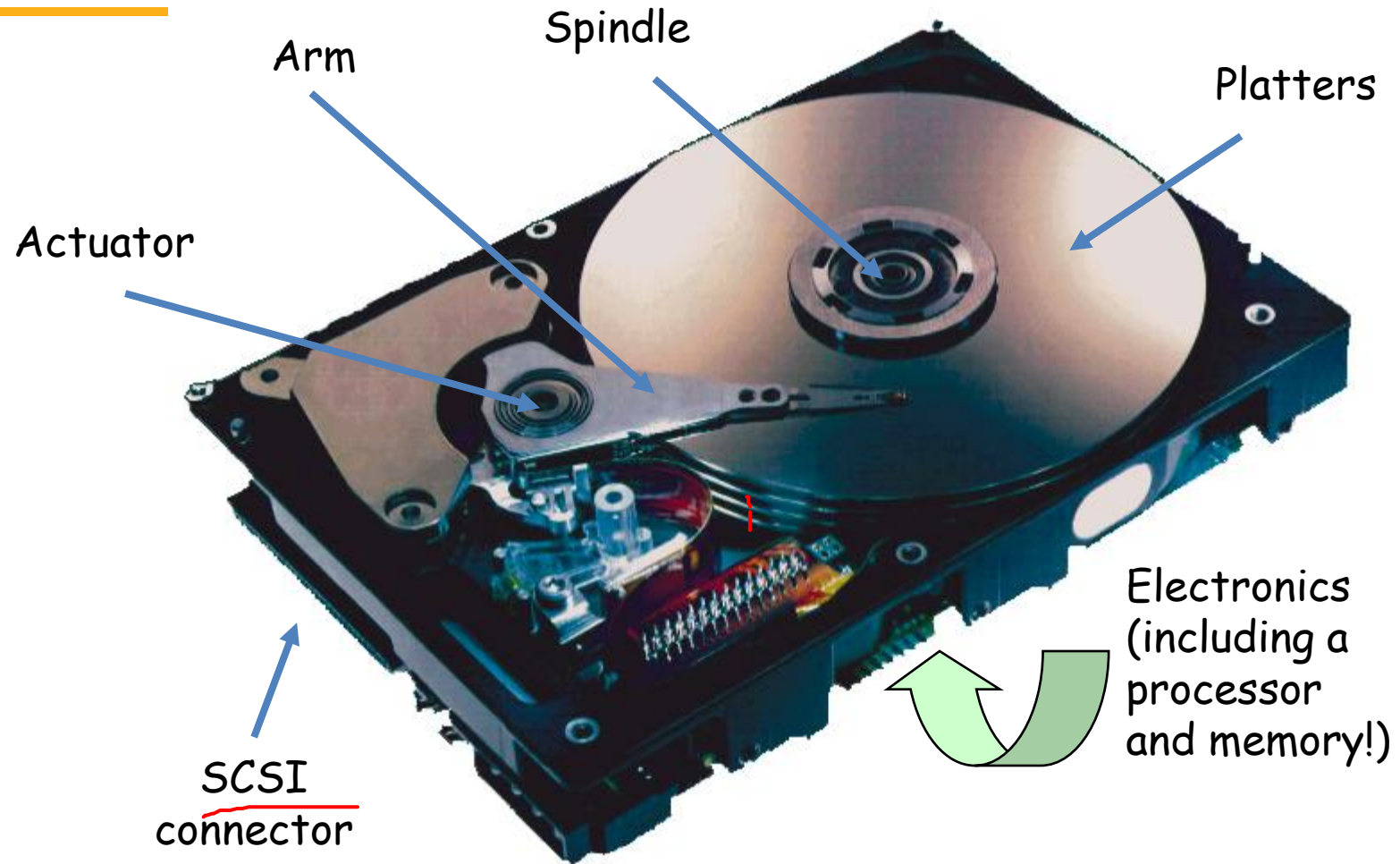


# Memory Write Operation (3)

Main memory reads data word  $y$  from the bus and stores it at address  $A$ .



# Magnetic Disk Drive

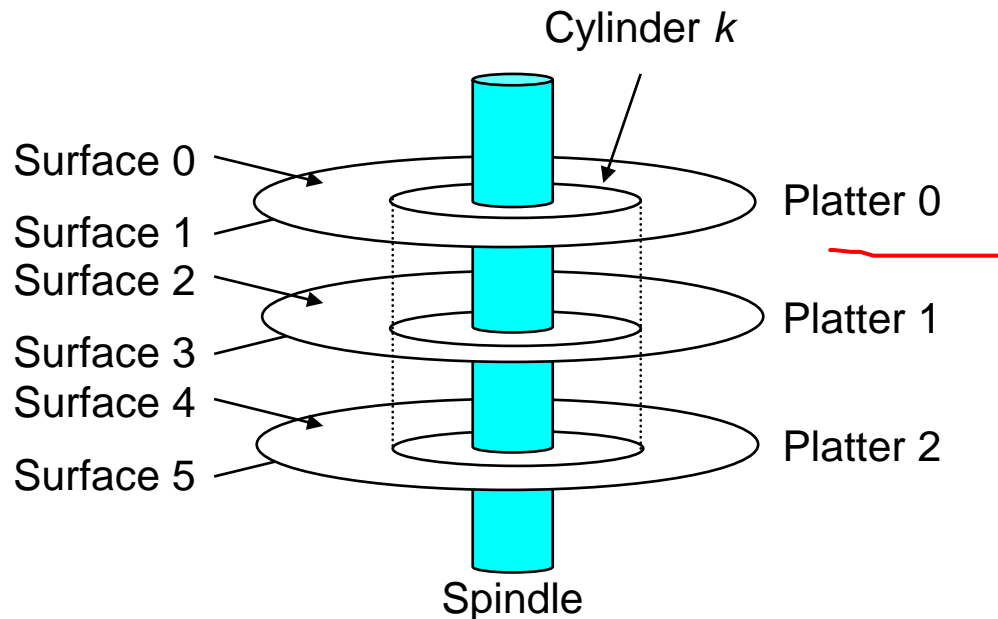


*Image courtesy of Seagate Technology*

# Disk Geometry



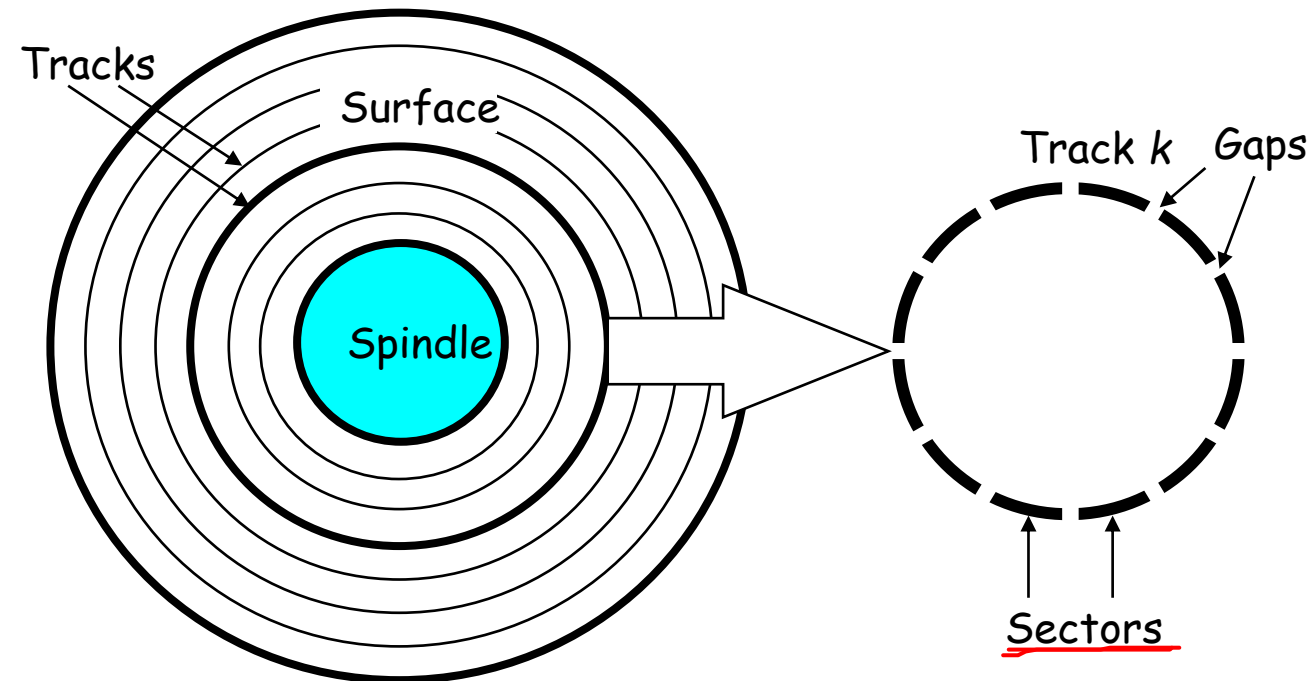
- Disks consist of **platters**, each with two **surfaces**.
- Each surface consists of concentric rings called tracks
- Aligned tracks form a cylinder



# Disk Geometry

- Each track consists of **sectors** separated by **gaps**.

P / S / T / Sector

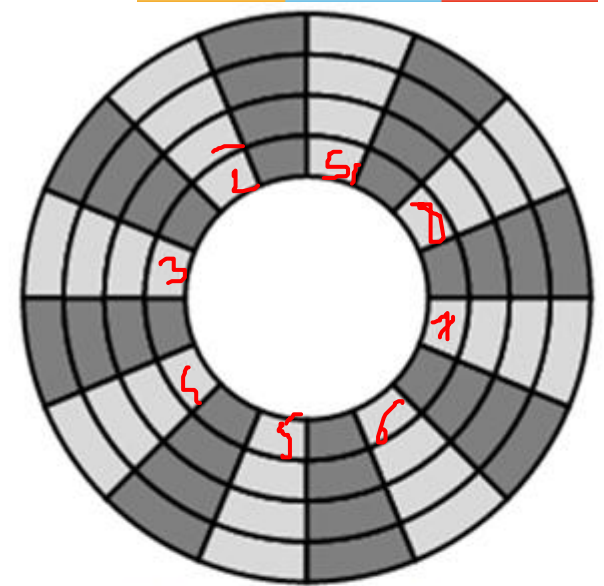


# Disk Capacity

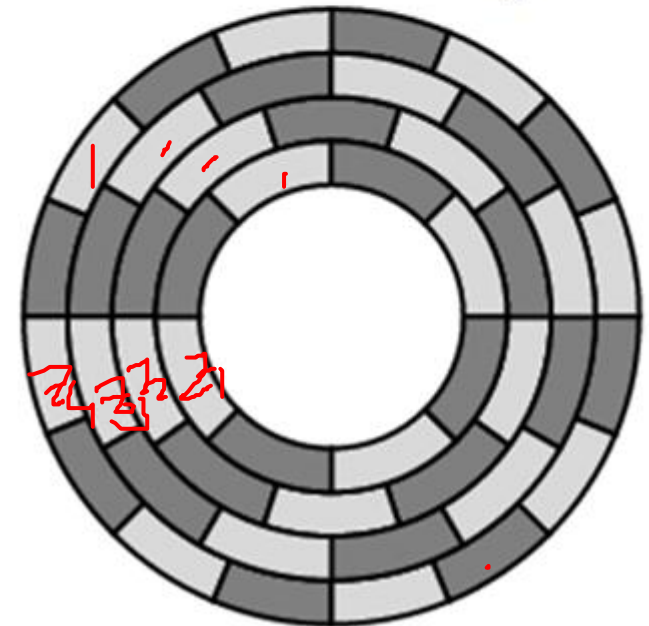
- **Capacity**: maximum number of bits that can be stored.
  - Vendors express capacity in units of gigabytes (GB /TB), where  $1 \text{ GB} = 2^{30} \text{ Bytes}$ ,  $1 \text{ TB} = 2^{40} \text{ Bytes}$ ,
- Capacity is determined by these technology factors:
  - ✓ **Recording density** (bits/in): number of bits that can be squeezed into a 1 inch segment of a track.
  - ✓ **Track density** (tracks/in): number of tracks that can be squeezed into a 1 inch radial segment.
  - ✓ **Areal density** (bits/in<sup>2</sup>): product of recording and track density.

# Recording zones

- Modern disks partition tracks into disjoint subsets called **recording zones**
  - Each track in a zone has the same number of sectors, determined by the circumference of innermost track.
  - Each zone has a different number of sectors/track, outer zones have more sectors/track than inner zones.
  - So we use **average** number of sectors/track when computing capacity.



Without Recording Zones



With Recording Zones

# Computing Disk Capacity



- Capacity =  $(\# \text{ bytes/sector}) \times (\text{avg. } \# \text{ sectors/track}) \times (\# \text{ tracks/surface}) \times (\# \text{ surfaces/platter}) \times (\# \text{ platters/disk})$

- Example:

- 512 bytes/sector
- 300 sectors/track (on average)
- 20,000 tracks/surface
- 2 surfaces/platter
- 5 platters/disk

- Capacity =  $512 \times 300 \times 20000 \times 2 \times 5$

$$= 30,720,000,000$$

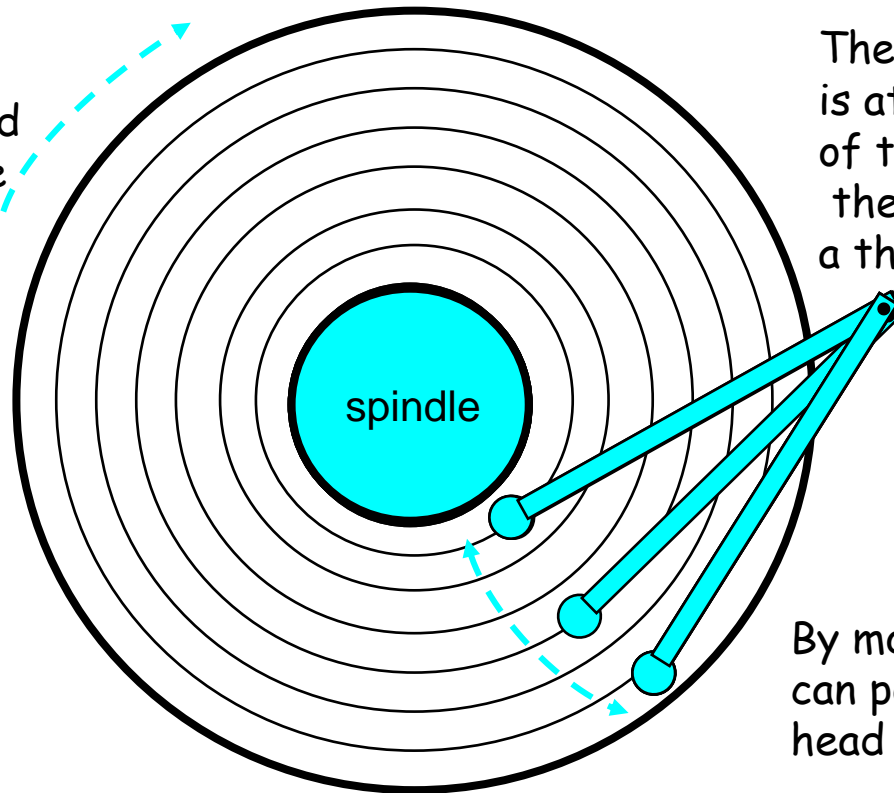
$$= 28.61 \text{ GB}$$

$$/ 1024 \times 1024 \times 1024$$



# Disk Operation (Single-Platter View)

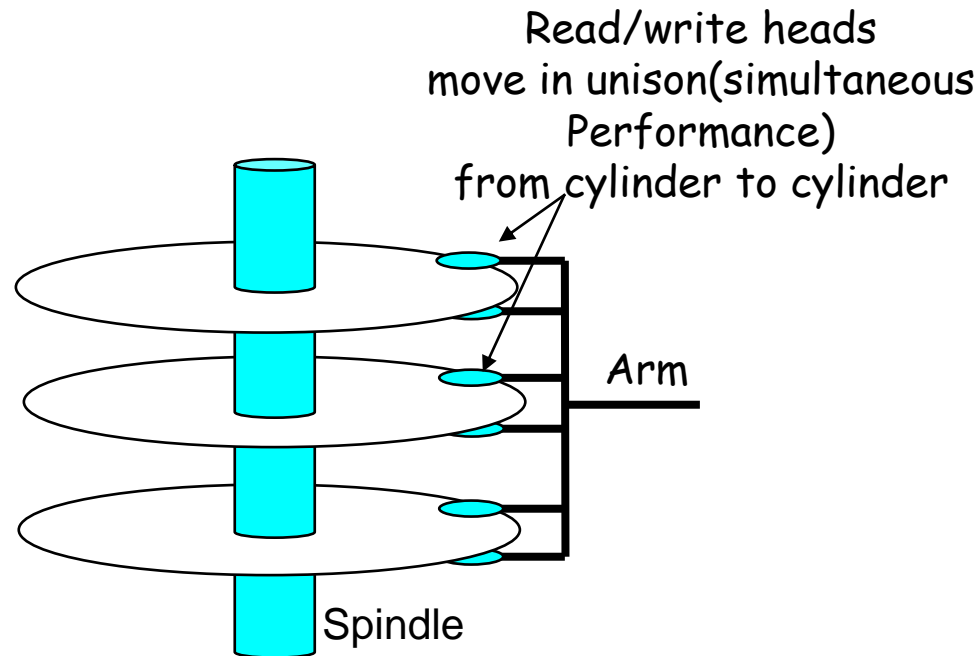
The disk surface spins at a fixed rotational rate.



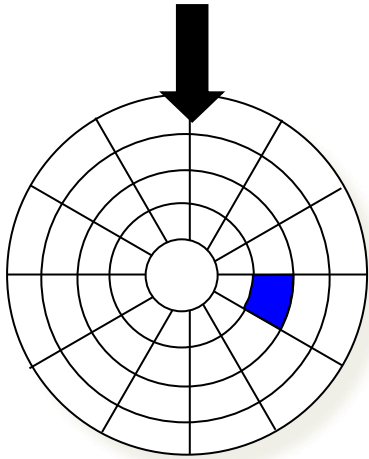
The read/write head is attached to the end of the arm and flies over the disk surface on a thin cushion of air.

By moving radially, the arm can position the read/write head over any track.

# Disk Operation (Multi-Platter View)

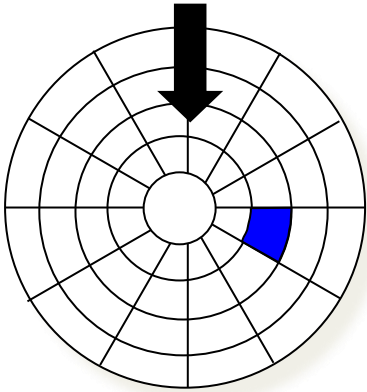


# Disk Access



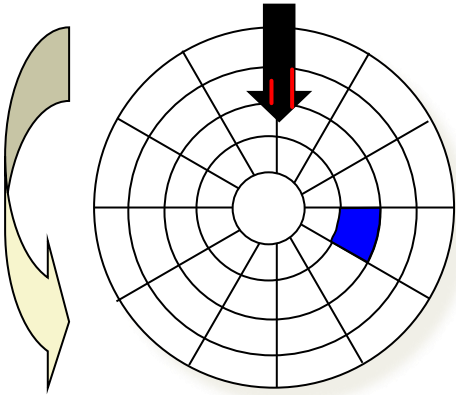
Need to access a sector colored in blue

# Disk Access



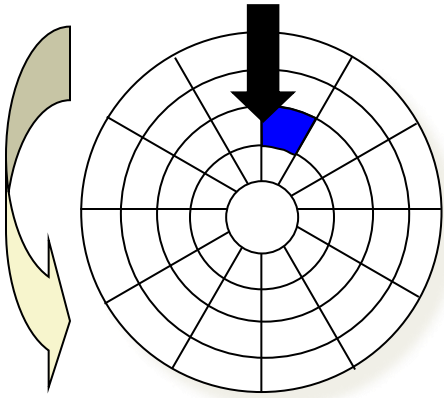
Head in position above a track

# Disk Access



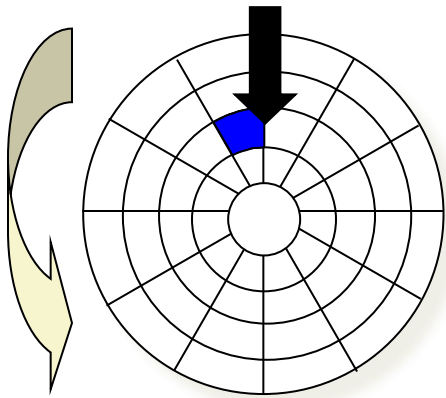
Rotate the platter in counter-clockwise direction

# Disk Access - Read



About to read blue sector

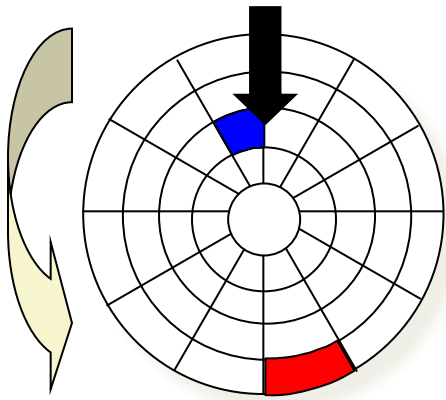
# Disk Access - Read



After BLUE  
read

After reading blue sector

# Disk Access - Read

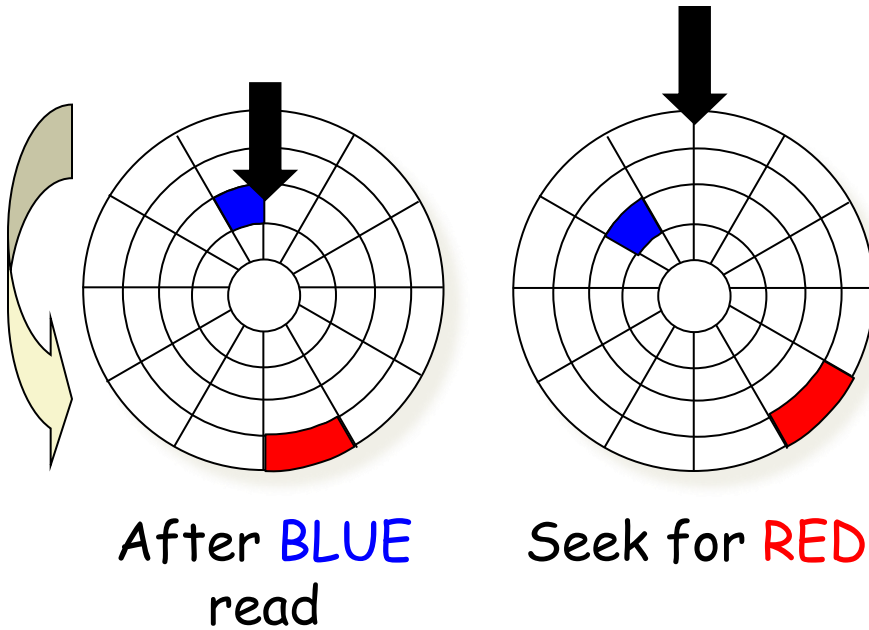


After BLUE  
read

Red request scheduled next

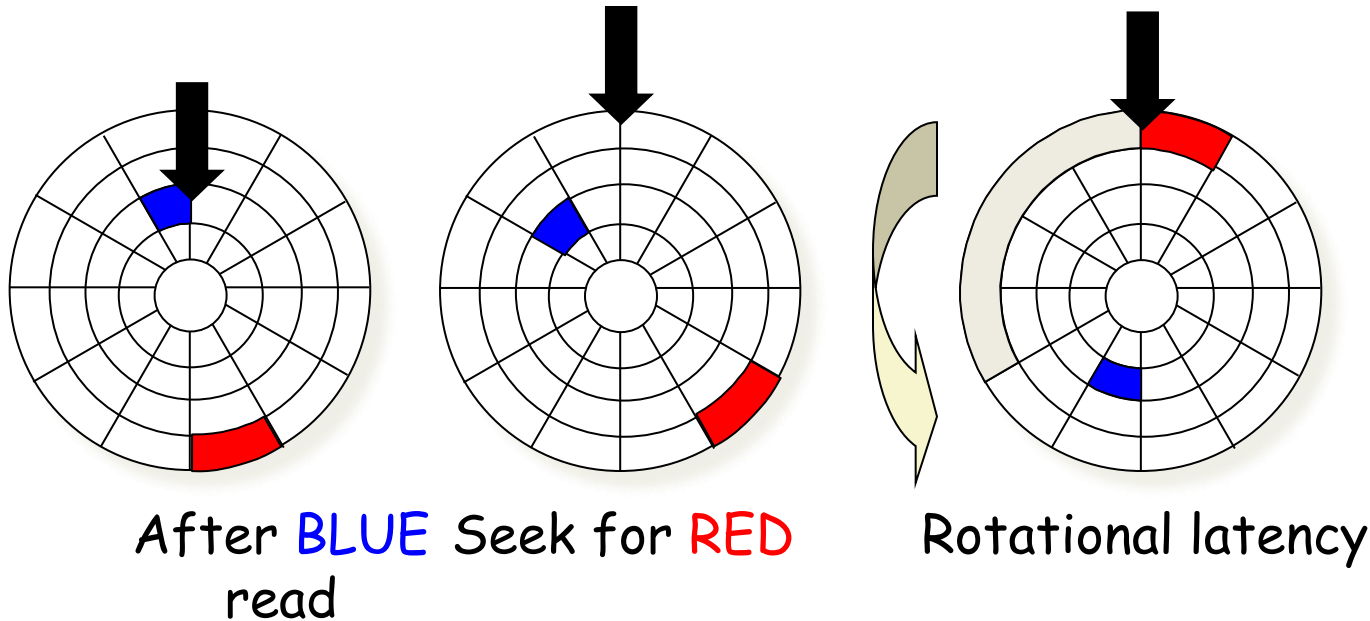


# Disk Access - Seek



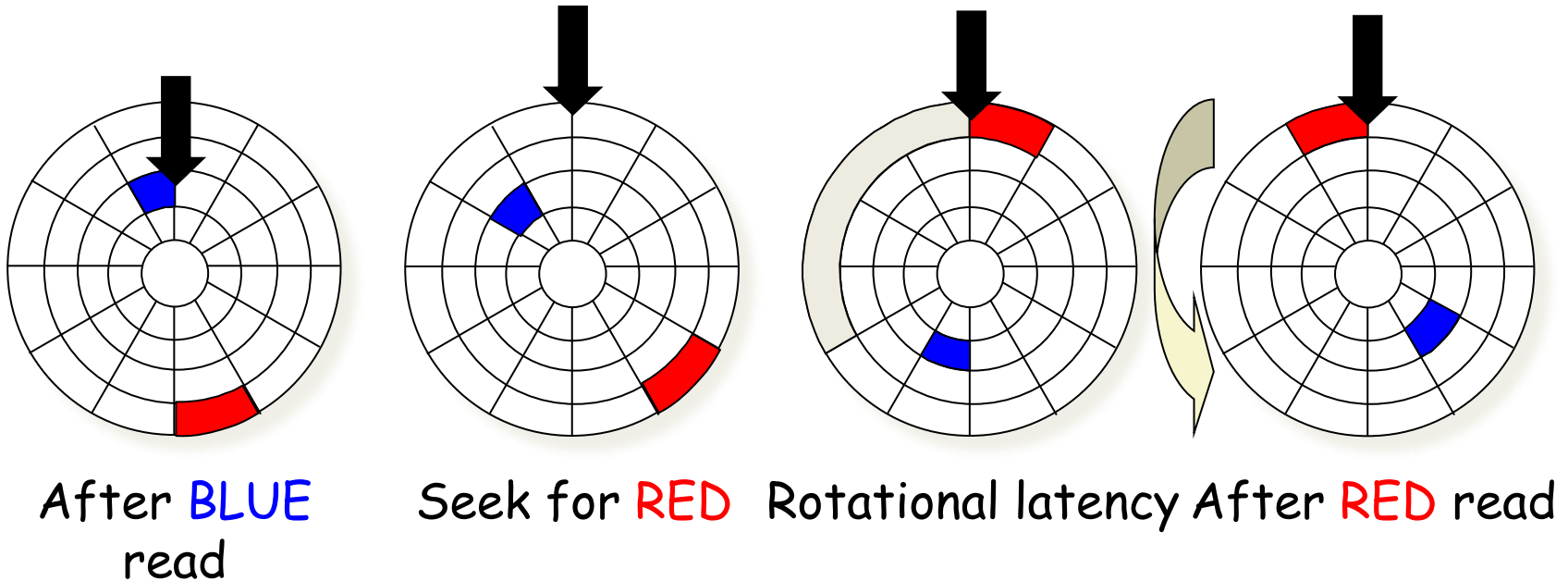
Seek to red's track

# Disk Access - Rotational Latency



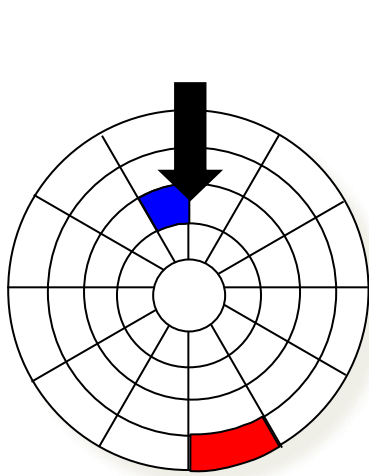
Wait for red sector to rotate around

# Disk Access - Read



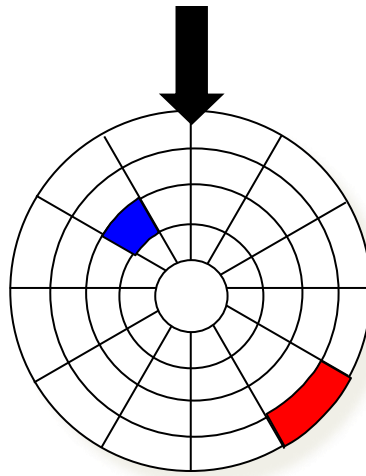
Complete read of red

# Disk Access - Access Time Components



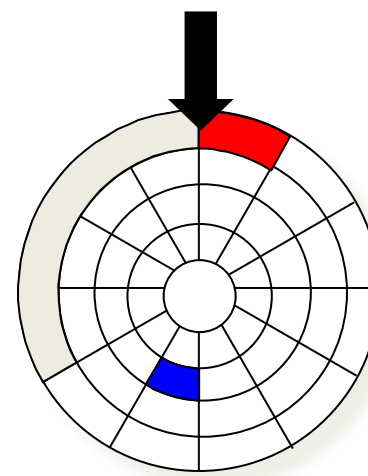
After **BLUE**  
read

↑  
Data transfer



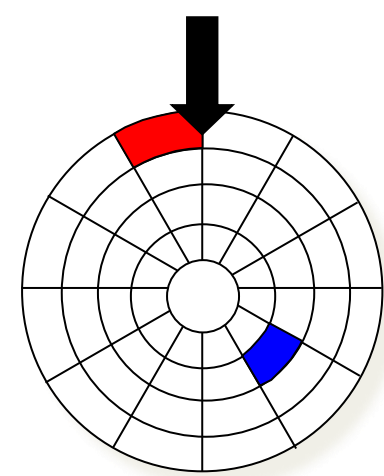
Seek for **RED**

↑  
Seek



Rotational latency After **RED** read

↑  
Rotational  
latency



↑  
Data transfer

# Disk Access Time

- Average time to access some target sector given by :
  - $T_{\text{access}} = T_{\text{avg seek}} + T_{\text{avg rotation}} + T_{\text{avg transfer}}$
- Seek time ( $T_{\text{avg seek}}$ )
  - Time to position heads over cylinder containing target sector.
  - Typical  $T_{\text{avg seek}}$  is 3–9 ms
- Rotational latency ( $T_{\text{avg rotation}}$ )
  - Time waiting for first bit of target sector to pass under r/w head.
  - $T_{\text{avg rotation}} = \frac{1}{2r}$ , where  $r$  is rotation Speed in revolution per Second
  - Typical  $T_{\text{avg rotation}} = \boxed{7200 \text{ RPMs}} = 7200/60 \text{ RPS}$
- Transfer time ( $T_{\text{avg transfer}}$ )
  - Time to read the bits in the target sector.
  - $T_{\text{avg transfer}} = \frac{b}{rN}$ , where  $b$  is the number of bytes to be transferred and  $N$  is the average number of bytes on a track

# Disk Access Time Example

Given:

- Rotational rate = 7,200 RPM
- Average seek time = 9 ms
- Avg # sectors/track = 400
- 512 bytes per sector

$$f = \frac{7200}{60}$$

$$\frac{1}{2f} = \frac{1}{2 \times \frac{7200}{60}}$$

Derived:

- Tavg rotation =  $\frac{1}{2r} = \frac{1}{2} \times (60 \text{ secs}/7200 \text{ RPM})$   
 $= 0.00416 = \underline{4.16 \text{ ms}}$

- Tavg transfer =  $\frac{b}{rN}$   
 $= 512 \times 60/7200 \times 1/(400 \times 512)$   
 $= 0.02 \text{ ms}$

$$\frac{512}{7200} \times \frac{60}{400 \times 512}$$

- Taccess =  $9 \text{ ms} + 4.16 \text{ ms} + 0.02 \text{ ms} = \underline{13.18 \text{ ms}}$

# Contd..

Byte = 8 bits

W = 16 "

32 "

QW = 64 "



B = 8 bits

W = 32 bits

Important points:

- Access time dominated by seek time and rotational latency.
- First bit in a sector is the most expensive, the rest are free.
- SRAM access time is about 4 ns/doubleword, DRAM about 60 ns
  - Disk is about 40,000 times slower than SRAM,
  - 2,500 times slower than DRAM.

# Logical Disk Blocks

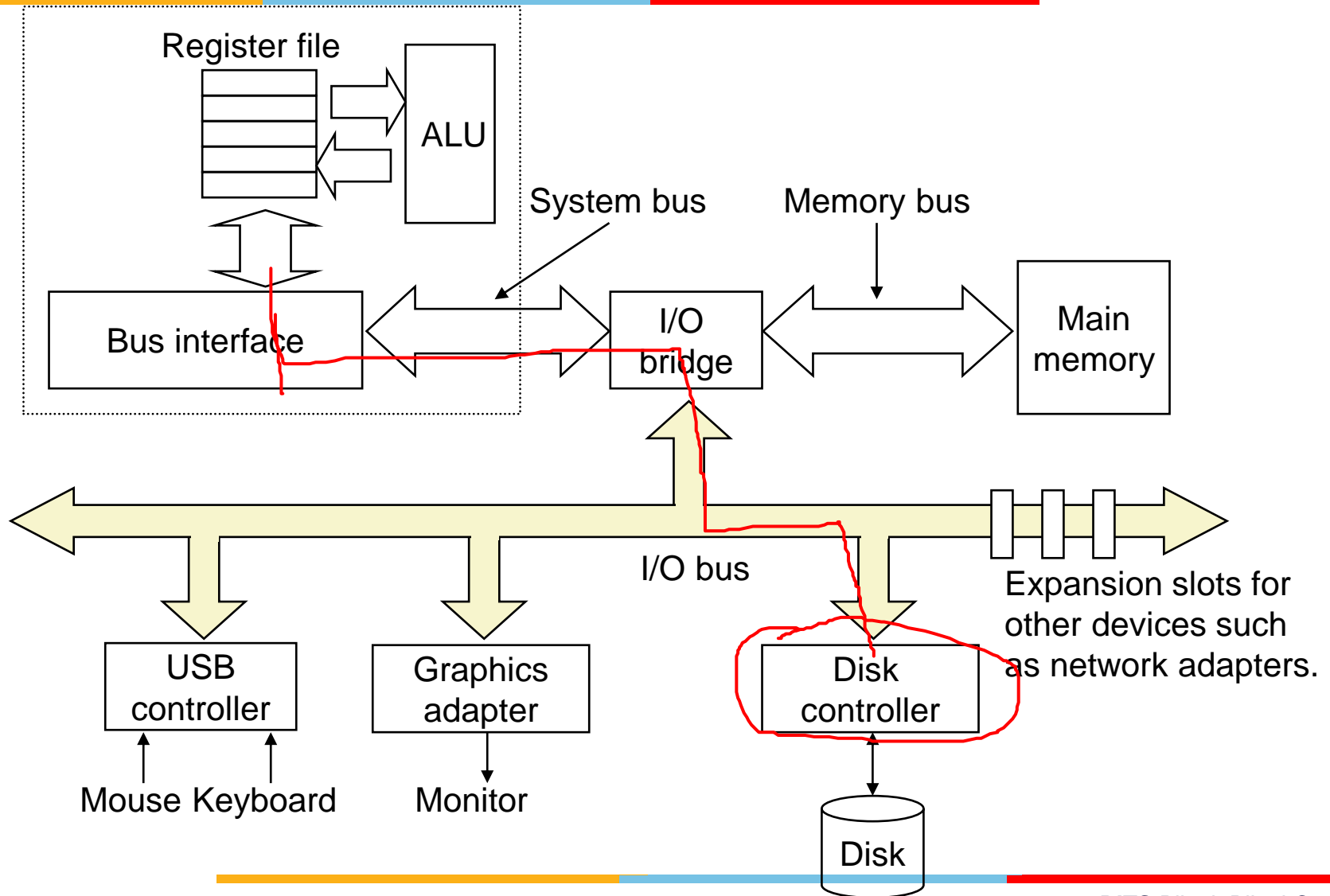
- Modern disks present a simpler abstract view of the complex sector geometry:
  - The set of available sectors is modeled as a sequence of b-sized **logical blocks** (0, 1, 2, ...)
- Mapping between logical blocks and actual (physical) sectors
  - Maintained by hardware/firmware device called disk controller.
  - Converts requests for logical blocks into (surface, track, sector) triples.
- Allows controller to set aside spare cylinders for each zone.
  - Accounts for the difference in "formatted capacity" and "maximum capacity".



# I/O Bus



CPU chip



Mem mapped I/O

I/O mapped I/O  
Isolated I/O

MOV

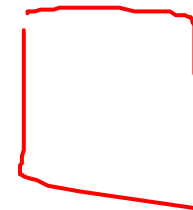
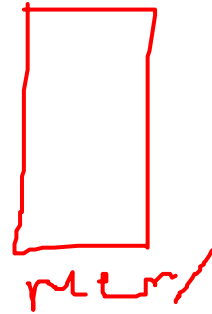
16/32

IN  
OUT

I/O

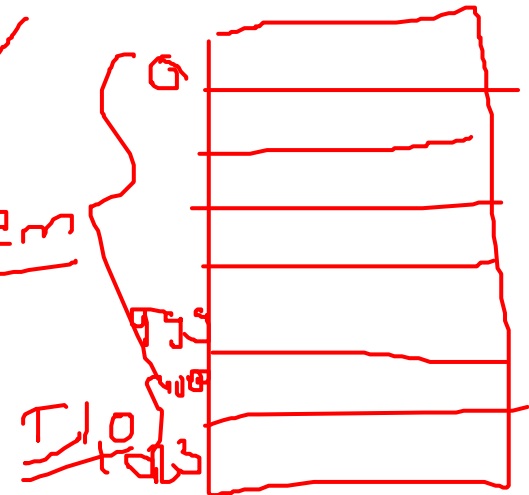
MOV R<sub>4</sub> 999

DS  
I/O/M<sub>1</sub> ⇒ 0



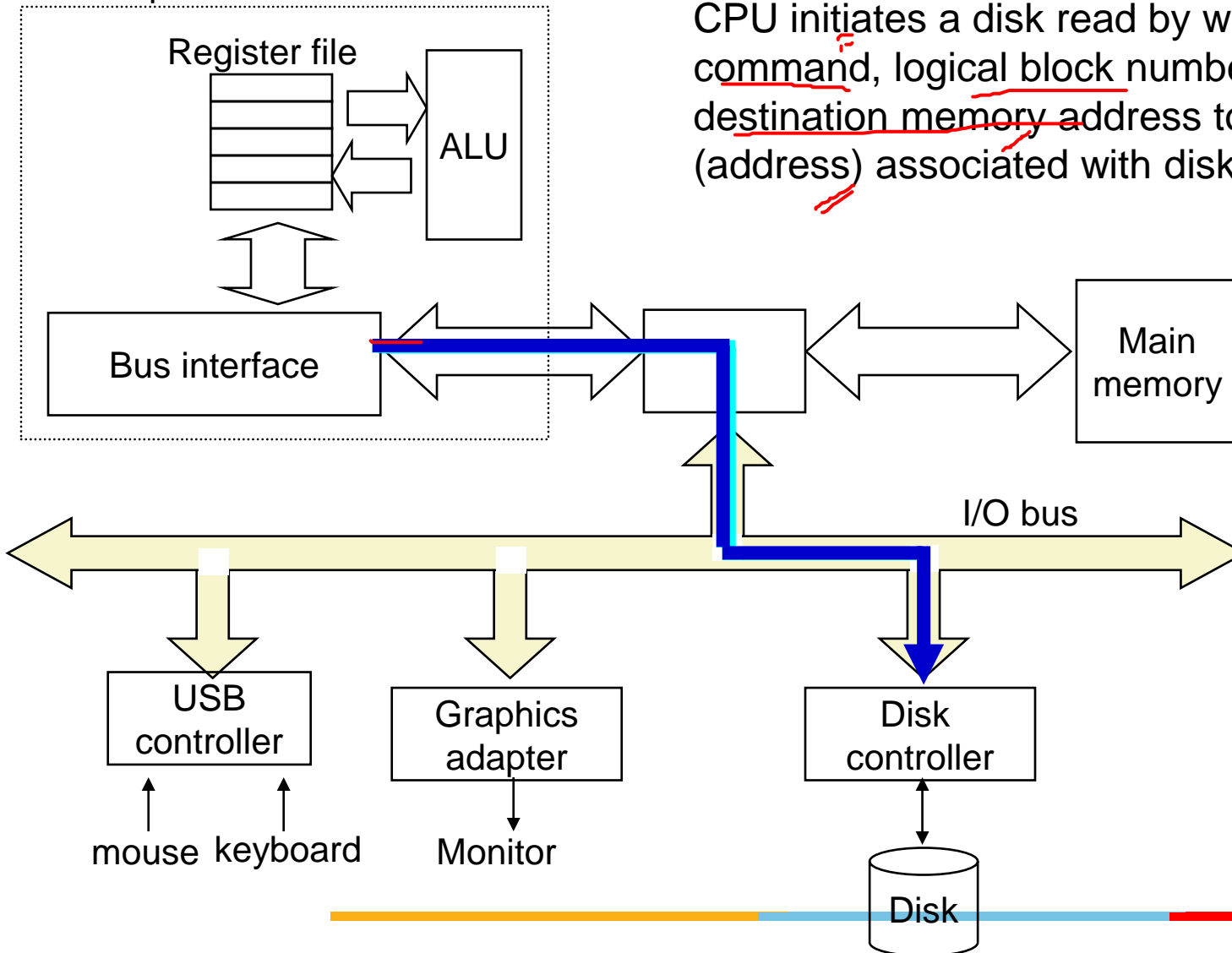
MOV R<sub>4</sub> 1001

Mem



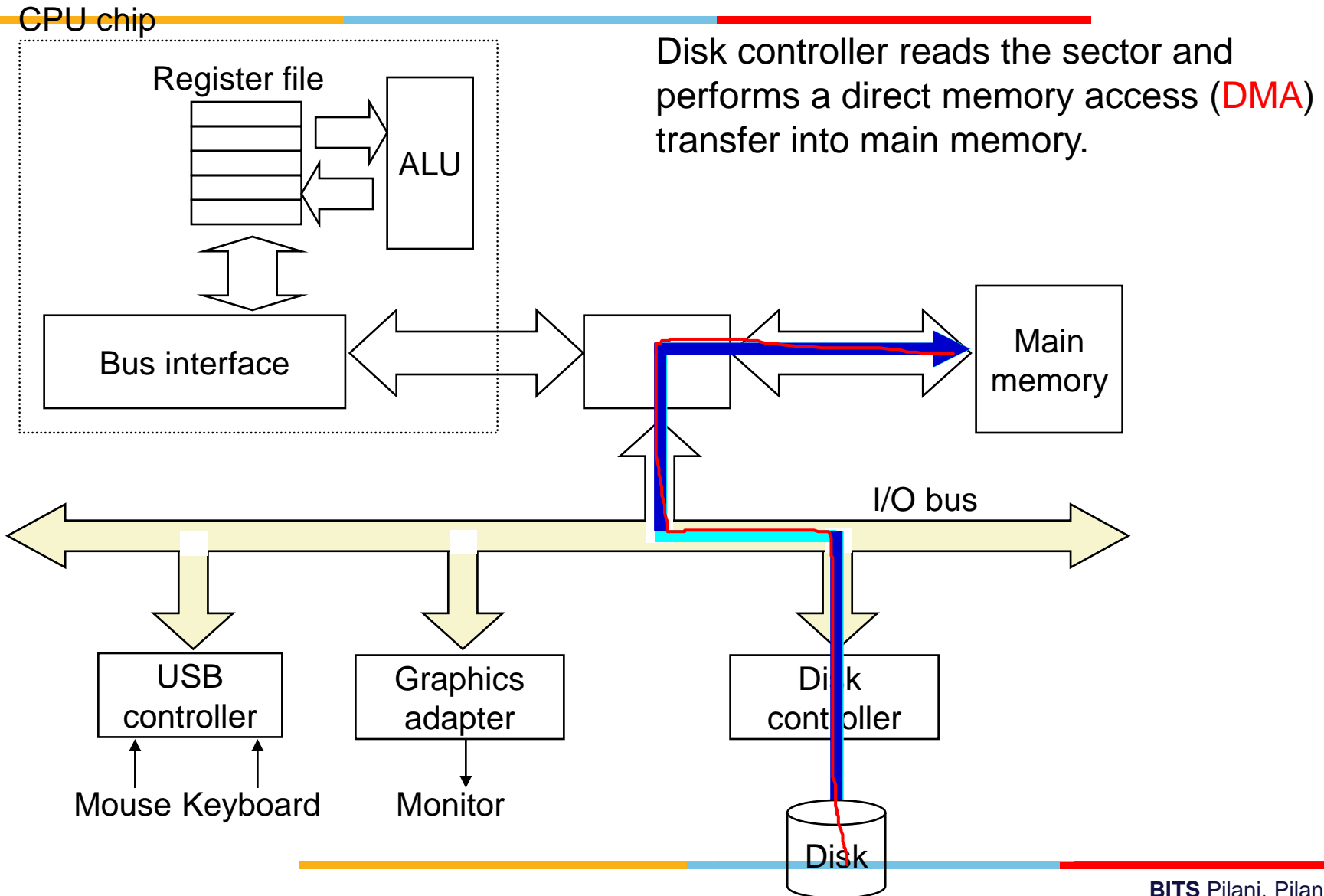
# Reading a Disk Sector (1)

CPU chip

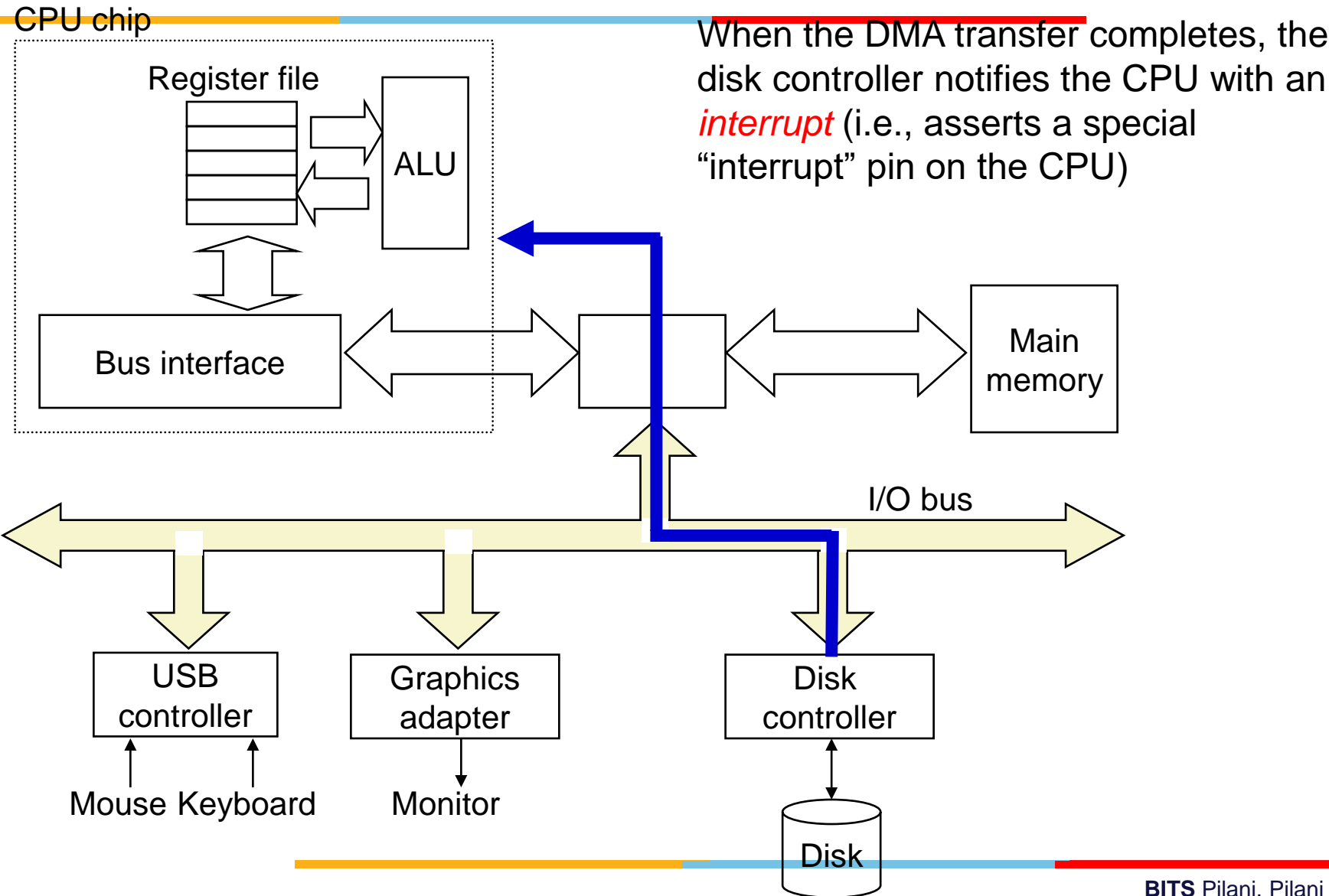


CPU initiates a disk read by writing a command, logical block number, and destination memory address to a port (address) associated with disk controller.

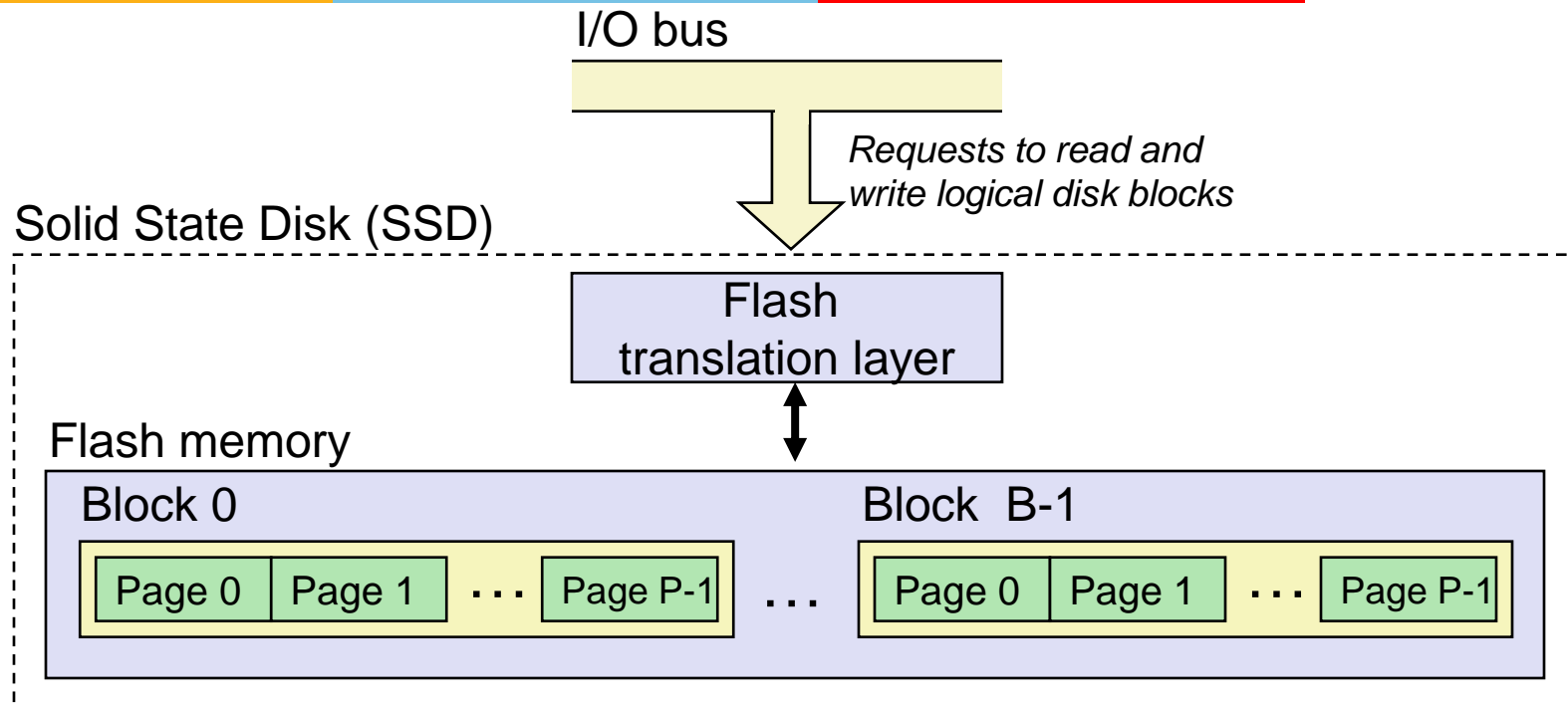
# Reading a Disk Sector (2)



# Reading a Disk Sector (3)



# Solid State Disks (SSDs)



- Pages: 512KB to 4KB, Blocks: 32 to 128 pages
- Data read/written in units of pages.
- Page can be written only after its block has been erased
- A block wears out after about 100,000 repeated writes.

# SSD Performance Characteristics

Sequential read tput	550 MB/s	Sequential write tput	470 MB/s
Random read tput	365 MB/s	Random write tput	303 MB/s
Avg seq read time	50 us	Avg seq write time	60 us

- Sequential access faster than random access
  - Common theme in the memory hierarchy
- Random writes are somewhat slower
  - Erasing a block takes a long time
  - Modifying a block page requires all other pages to be copied to new block
  - In earlier SSDs, the read/write gap was much larger.

# SSD Tradeoffs vs Rotating Disks

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- Advantages
  - No moving parts → faster, less power, more rugged
- Disadvantages
  - Have the potential to wear out
    - Mitigated by “wear leveling logic” in flash translation layer
    - E.g. Intel SSD 730 guarantees 128 petabyte ( $128 \times 10^{15}$  bytes) of writes before they wear out
  - In 2015, about 30 times more expensive per byte
- Applications
  - MP3 players, smart phones, laptops
  - Beginning to appear in desktops and servers